NEA

Research Bulletin

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Who Is Opposed to Federal Grants?

Farmers? Motorists? Air travelers? Unemployed persons? City officials? School officials? Parents?

SOME SAY THAT MANY people are opposed to the granting of federal funds either to their state or to themselves. Is this true?

The *Annual Report of the Secretary of the Treasury of the United States for Fiscal Year 1958* indicates that vast numbers of American citizens desire and willingly accept the benefits of federal funds.

Farmers

When we examine the Treasury report of federal grant-in-aid programs, we find that apparently most American farmers are not opposed to federal grants, for they received last year $563 million under the Soil Bank Program and $215 million under the Agricultural Conservation Program. Moreover, these farmers benefited from the experimentation, the research, and the advice resulting from $85 million spent for agricultural experimentation stations and co-operative agricultural extension work. In addition, American farmers co-operated with and benefited from agricultural grant-in-aid programs amounting to $149 million for such items as removal of surplus agricultural commodities, water-shed protection and flood prevention, state and private forestry co-operation, submarginal land programs, and co-operative projects in marketing.

Highway and Airway Users

Apparently the majority of the members of our state legislatures, most of our motorists, and truck, bus, and other motor-vehicle operators were not opposed to their states' receiving $1.5 billion in federal grants-in-aid last year for highway and road construction projects. Many airline owners and employees plus air travelers, private plane owners, and municipal officials were apparently eager to obtain $43 million for airport construction and civil aeronautics administration.

Doctors, Nurses, and Patients

Apparently most citizens, including many doctors, nurses, and patients, did not oppose the $105 million in federal funds spent last year for hospital construction and medical facilities. Many of these same persons were happy to benefit from and co-operate with the dispensing of $76 million for public health services and maternal and child welfare services.

Elderly and Handicapped Persons

Surely few elderly persons in our country refused to accept a portion of the $1.1 billion in old-age assistance that the states received from the federal government. The same is undoubtedly true for the many widows and guardians who received $544 million for dependent children.

Disabled and blind persons, it is reasonable to assume, were glad to receive $170 million from federal sources. Most of our unemployed persons must have been grateful to receive the benefits of $291 million in unemployment compensation and employment services.

Our veterans benefited from $710 million in readjustment benefits and

During the current year the NEA Research Division has frequently been called upon to assemble figures that relate to federal support for public elementary and secondary schools. This article is based upon one set of these figures.

FEDERAL PAYMENTS MADE DIRECTLY TO STATE AND LOCAL GOVERNMENTAL UNITS AND TO INDIVIDUALS OR OTHER AGENCIES WITHIN STATES, AND TOTAL REVENUE FROM STATE TAX SOURCES, FISCAL 1958

State	Federal payments: Total to state and local units	Federal payments: Total to individuals or other agencies	Federal payments: Grand total	Total revenue from state tax sources, 1958 (in thousands)	Percent federal payments are of total revenue from state tax sources*
Alabama	$ 120,088,473	$ 65,107,631	$ 185,196,104	$ 233,028	79.47%
Alaska	28,010,701	4,485,517	32,496,218	23,263	139.69
Arizona	53,470,228	17,925,271	71,395,499	112,401	63.52
Arkansas	75,446,702	37,074,300	112,521,002	141,184	79.70
California	464,773,255	147,177,545	611,950,800	1,673,873	36.56
Colorado	90,294,301	38,731,187	129,025,488	165,414	78.00
Connecticut	50,075,487	21,370,710	71,446,197	218,786	32.66
Delaware	9,943,808	5,932,523	15,876,331	53,679	29.58
Florida	112,331,520	37,462,851	149,794,371	436,479	34.32
Georgia	123,147,125	67,894,538	191,041,663	317,437	60.18
Hawaii	16,722,526	16,841,639	33,564,165	95,669	35.08
Idaho	28,399,050	19,189,197	47,588,247	53,278	89.32
Illinois	200,219,915	84,639,855	284,859,770	735,090	38.75
Indiana	62,152,556	58,339,407	120,491,963	371,396	32.44
Iowa	85,016,979	70,181,301	155,198,280	237,098	65.46
Kansas	63,780,893	42,557,783	106,338,676	168,322	63.18
Kentucky	86,844,747	37,019,603	123,864,350	207,384	59.73
Louisiana	133,627,680	43,377,835	177,005,515	380,815	46.48
Maine	29,056,281	10,334,761	39,391,042	78,762	50.01
Maryland	65,046,997	25,066,504	90,113,501	252,686	35.66
Massachusetts	128,230,181	60,411,191	188,641,372	415,185	45.44
Michigan	170,753,406	77,773,923	248,527,329	794,161	31.29
Minnesota	85,986,125	56,981,013	142,967,138	319,777	44.71
Mississippi	90,111,438	46,481,337	136,592,775	163,596	83.49
Missouri	170,439,050	73,999,537	244,438,587	279,647	87.41
Montana	33,573,049	19,498,018	53,071,067	56,508	93.92
Nebraska	39,497,887	63,329,412	102,827,299	81,962	125.46
Nevada	21,759,204	3,778,762	25,537,966	36,854	69.29
New Hampshire	20,006,236	7,497,908	27,504,144	35,003	78.58
New Jersey	76,000,545	43,564,083	119,564,628	288,979	41.37
New Mexico	70,262,001	19,547,780	89,809,781	105,732	84.94
New York	354,769,825	127,332,311	482,102,136	1,501,397	32.11
North Carolina	108,782,502	61,378,632	170,161,134	375,134	45.36
North Dakota	32,243,878	40,957,371	73,201,249	55,957	130.82
Ohio	208,989,146	78,991,815	287,980,961	699,438	41.17
Oklahoma	133,598,558	49,594,677	183,193,235	246,491	74.32
Oregon	79,235,062	23,480,749	102,715,811	184,977	55.53
Pennsylvania	203,734,145	90,944,671	294,678,816	890,024	33.11
Rhode Island	33,559,079	10,869,369	44,428,448	69,870	63.59
South Carolina	57,517,828	33,437,289	90,955,117	184,826	49.21
South Dakota	31,162,751	35,487,842	66,650,593	45,002	148.11
Tennessee	92,539,201	48,509,976	141,049,177	269,294	52.38
Texas	287,693,185	165,017,299	452,710,484	666,576	67.92
Utah	30,845,499	20,324,314	51,169,813	79,061	64.72
Vermont	13,605,265	6,758,293	20,363,558	37,330	54.55
Virginia	72,350,314	27,810,323	100,160,637	256,869	38.99
Washington	104,396,323	34,107,004	138,503,327	374,351	37.00
West Virginia	50,183,969	15,116,893	65,300,862	161,039	40.55
Wisconsin	76,393,541	46,701,920	123,095,461	371,012	33.18
Wyoming	39,030,273	9,107,201	48,137,474	36,072	133.45
Total United States	$4,815,698,690	$2,249,500,871	$7,065,199,561	$15,038,168	46.98%

Sources:

Office of the Secretary of the Treasury. Annual Report of the Secretary of the Treasury on the State of the Finances for Fiscal Year Ended June 30, 1958. Treasury Department Document No. 3210. Washington, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, 1959. p. 636, 643.

U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. Compendium of State Government Finances in 1958. G-SF58-No. 2. Washington, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, 1959. p. 11.

* Computed by the NEA Research Division by dividing the grand total of federal payments made directly to state and local governmental units and to individuals by the total revenue from state tax sources.

rehabilitation expenditures from federal sources.

Higher Education and Research

Universities, colleges, hospitals, and other research agencies and individuals requested and received $137 million in research and training grants.

City officials requested and received $112 million for waste-treatment facilities and public housing.

School Aid

Apparently many of our school-board members, school administrators, teachers, and parents looked favorably on the $218 million received for our public elementary and secondary schools for school construction and school operation and maintenance—including payment for teachers' salaries and other operational costs—under the Vocational Education Acts and to aid schools in federally impacted areas. Moreover, many of these same school-board members, administrators, teachers, parents, and certainly children were happy for their schools and school districts to get $165 million under school lunch and school milk programs.

All Benefit

When we look at the over-all picture, we see that practically all our people apparently want and benefit from some type of federal grant-in-aid program.

When all these programs were added together for the fiscal year 1958, the total payments to *state and local governmental agencies* from federal sources amounted to $4.8 billion.

When we look at grant-in-aid payments made to *individuals* in our states, we find these payments from federal sources to be $2.2 billion. When we add the payments to state and local goverments and the payments to individuals, the grand total is $7.0 billion. The table shows the amounts of grant-in-aid funds received in 50 states (a) by state and local agencies and (b) by individuals.

When we compare the grand total of federal payments to state and local agencies and to individuals with the total revenue collected by each state from state tax sources, we see the importance of these grants to all of us. The table shows that the grand total of federal payments is equal to 47.0 percent of the total tax collections from state sources in fiscal 1958. The grants in aid to state and local agencies and to individuals in South Dakota equaled 148.1 percent of the total revenue collected from state sources in the state. The payments equaled 139.7 percent of state revenue in Alaska; 133.5 percent in Wyoming; 130.8 percent in North Dakota; 125.5 percent in Nebraska.

The lowest percent for any state was 29.6 in Delaware.

In addition to direct grants in aid to states, local units, and individuals, the Secretary of the Treasury reported a total of $9.9 billion in federal domestic *loans* outstanding as of fiscal *1958*. These loans are as follows:

To aid agriculture	$5,253,342,000
To aid home owners	3,234,602,000
To aid industry	654,183,000
To aid states, territories, etc.	270,918,000
To aid financial institutions	1,779,000
Other loans	446,780,000
	$9,861,604,000

The Annual Report of the Secretary of the Treasury gives clear evidence that a substantial number of the American people desire and receive federal funds for purposes for which they feel a definite need. Certainly there is overwhelming evidence that substantial federal funds are needed for the support of education.

Salary Schedule Progress Uneven

A few large urban school systems show major advances

SALARY SCHEDULES in effect in the fall of 1959 in 168 of the urban school districts of 100,000 population and over have been analyzed by the NEA Research Division. With notable exceptions, the increases over last year's schedules are disappointingly small.

Summaries were recorded according to the population of the school district, in two groups, as follows:

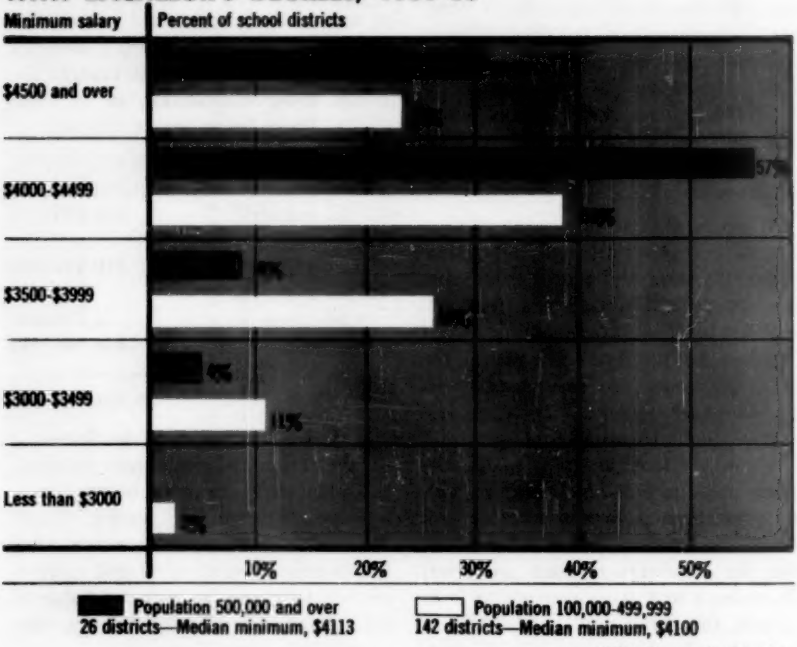
Group I, 26 urban school districts 500,000 and over in population.

Group II, 142 urban school districts 100,000-499,999 in population.

Here are some current findings and comparisons:

- The median of minimum salaries for teachers with bachelor's degrees is $4113 in Group I and $4100 in Group II.
- Of the 168 districts reporting, 142 also reported last year. Two-thirds of the schedules in Groups I and II increased the bachelor's degree minimum salary since 1958-59, but the increase in the medians of minimum salaries is less than 3 percent.
- Increases in the minimum salary of $500 or more were reported by 7 percent of the districts.
- Minimum salaries of $4600 or more for bachelor's degree teachers are

BEGINNING SALARIES SCHEDULED FOR TEACHERS WITH BACHELOR'S DEGREES, 1959-60



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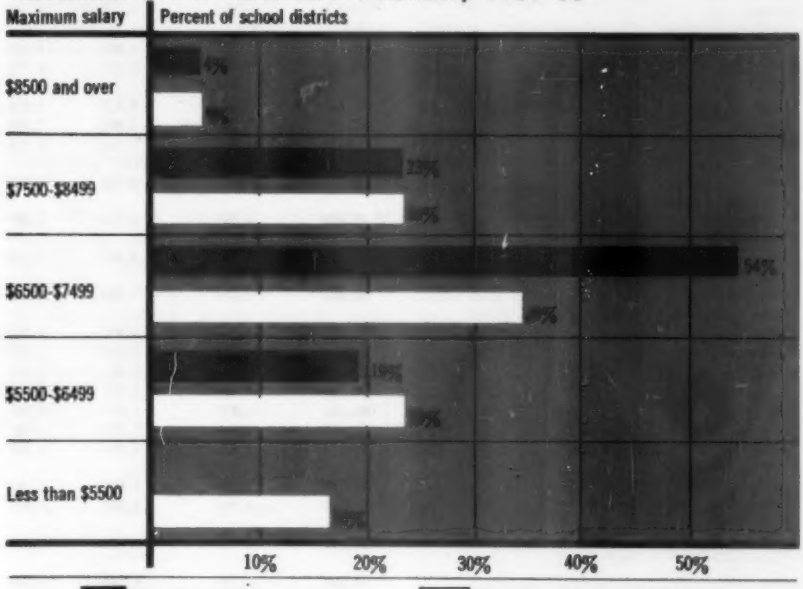
scheduled in 19 percent of both groups of districts.

- The median of maximum salaries for teachers with master's degrees is $6900 in Group I and $6815 in Group II.
- About two-thirds of both groups of districts provide one or more salary classes to recognize preparation beyond the master's degree.
- About half the schedules in both groups recognize the doctor's degree or equivalent.
- The medians of the highest maximums scheduled for the highest level of preparation recognized in each schedule are $7050 in Group I and $7125 in Group II.
- Only 27 percent of the schedules in either group recognize a salary as high as $8000 for even the highest level of preparation and experience.
- Of the 142 districts reporting both in 1958-59 and in 1959-60, two-thirds had increased maximum salaries, at least slightly, over 1958-59.
- Increases of $700 and over at the top maximum salary were reported by 11 percent of the districts.
- Medians of maximum salaries for bachelor's degrees, master's degrees, and the top maximum increased by percents ranging from less than 1.0 up to 4.2.
- The median number of annual increment steps to reach the maximum salary in the bachelor's degree salary class is 11 in Group I and 12 in Group II.
- The median amount of the annual increment is $200 in both groups. Increments of $300 and over are pro-

MAXIMUM SALARIES SCHEDULED FOR EXPERIENCED TEACHERS WITH MASTER'S DEGREES, 1959-60



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SALARY SCHEDULE FIGURES IN LARGEST URBAN SCHOOL DISTRICTS, 1959-60

School district	Number of pupils in ADM, 1958-59	Scheduled salaries for classroom teachers, 1959-60		
		Minimum with B.A. degree	Maximum with M.A. degree*	Top maximum*
New York, N. Y.	958,100	$4,500	$8,300	$8,700
Los Angeles, Calif.	537,971	4,730	7,530	9,000
Chicago, Ill.	452,080	5,000	7,750	8,750
			(8,750)	(9,750)
Detroit, Mich.	282,483	4,700	7,700	8,300
			(7,850)	(8,450)
Philadelphia, Pa.	235,037	4,000	6,500	6,500
Baltimore, Md.	163,000	4,000	6,750	7,000
Houston, Texas	149,939*	4,000	6,200	6,200
Dade Co., Fla.	146,206	4,000	6,500	7,100
(P.O., Miami)			(6,800)	(7,400)
State of Hawaii	133,535	4,020	6,300	6,300
(including Honolulu)				
Cleveland, Ohio	127,816	4,500	8,800	8,800
			(9,700)	(9,700)
Dallas, Texas	111,663	4,100	6,200	6,500
Washington, D. C.	110,800	4,500	7,100	7,300
St. Louis, Mo.	101,669	4,000	6,600	6,800
San Francisco, Calif.	96,696	4,770	8,035	8,660
Seattle, Wash.	96,647	4,200	6,800	7,800
Milwaukee, Wis.	96,498	4,200	6,900	7,500
Atlanta, Ga.	92,818	3,636	6,636	6,636
Memphis, Tenn.	92,496	3,600	6,300	6,600
San Diego, Calif.	90,091	4,700	7,800	9,000
Duval Co., Fla.	88,779	3,500	5,794	6,336
(P.O. Jacksonville)				
Boston, Mass.	86,604	4,020	6,900	6,900
Orleans Parish, La.	86,307	3,490	6,446	6,746
(P.O., New Orleans)				
Denver, Colo.	83,525	4,125	6,975	7,650
Pittsburgh, Pa.	77,597	4,000	7,000	7,000
Baltimore Co., Md.	77,500	4,000	7,740	8,820
(P.O., Towson)				
Cincinnati, Ohio	76,516	4,200	6,850	6,850
(Calendar year 1959)				
Columbus, Ohio	75,884	4,150	6,750	7,000
(Calendar year 1959)				
Minneapolis, Minn.	70,715	4,200	7,100	7,500
(Calendar year 1959)				
Indianapolis, Ind.	68,683	4,400	7,300	8,000
(Effective December 19, 1959)				
Portland, Oreg.	68,030	4,300	7,000	7,000
San Antonio, Texas	68,000	3,900	6,000	6,000
Kansas City, Mo.	67,410	4,000	7,000	7,500
Long Beach, Calif.	67,388	4,700	8,450	9,450
Buffalo, N. Y.	66,250	4,000	6,900	6,900
Birmingham, Ala.	66,158	2,750	5,000	5,000
Hillsborough Co., Fla.	65,717*	3,700	5,850	6,250
(P.O., Tampa)				
Fort Worth, Texas	62,751*	3,850	5,850	6,110
Montgomery Co., Md.	62,556	4,500	8,500	8,900
(P.O., Rockville)				
Mobile Co., Ala.	61,683	3,100	4,500	4,500
(P.O., Mobile)				
Tulsa, Okla.	61,388	3,720	6,180	6,480
Median salary	.....	$4,020	$6,875	$7,000

*1957-58 average daily membership.

*Maximum salaries not fully in effect in some districts. Salaries in parens are extended-service maximums.

vided in 5 percent of the Group I schedules and in 7 percent of those in Group II.

- Special salary maximums to recognize *superior service* were provided in 2.8 percent of the Group II schedules, but in none in Group I.
- Increments beyond the normal maximum to recognize *extended service* (at intervals of three years or more) are provided in 15 percent of the Group I schedules and 14 percent of the schedules in Group II.

Relationships

Medians of the minimum and maximum salaries scheduled in 1959-60 for certain levels of preparation are as follows:

Preparation levels	Group I districts (26)	Group II districts (142)
Medians of:		
B.A. minimums	$4,113	$4,100
M.A. minimums	4,310	4,325
B.A. maximums	6,563	6,337
M.A. maximums	6,900	6,815
Top maximums, for highest preparation	7,050	7,125

A maximum salary at least twice the beginning salary has long been recognized as a desirable salary objective, one that is in line with earnings in professions other than teaching. How far the 1959-60 salaries for urban teachers are from that goal is indicated in the following index figures, with the salary for the first-year bachelor's degree teacher as 100.0:

Preparation levels	Group I districts (26)	Group II districts (142)
Medians of:		
B.A. minimums	100.0	100.0
M.A. minimums	104.8	105.5
B.A. maximums	159.6	154.6
M.A. maximums	167.8	166.2
Top maximums, for highest preparation	171.4	173.8

The difference between the maximum salary and the salary for the beginning teacher with minimum requirements represents the premium paid for advanced preparation and experience. In the median Group I city, the top maximum is only 71.4 percent higher than the salary of the beginner; this percent is lower than it was last year.

In Group II the differential is also small, only 73.8 percent, and it likewise is smaller than in 1958-59.

Salary Increases

About two-thirds of the districts have increased salary schedules, at least slightly, over 1958-59. Substantial increases over 1958-59 were reported by some districts.

In Hawaii (classified as an urban district since Honolulu is an integral part of the unified school system) a flat $900 was added to all salaries.

A new schedule in Cleveland provides increases ranging from $250 at the minimum to $1550 at the master's degree maximum, plus an additional $900 for extended-service increments up to 36 years of service. The schedule will not be fully implemented, however, until 1963-64 for normal maximums and 1968-69 for extended-service maximums.

In Montgomery County, Maryland, minimum salaries were increased $500 and maximums at the master's degree level and above were raised $1700—the last $800 of which is dependent upon the recommendation of the superintendent of schools.

When school opened in Chicago this fall, all salaries were $150 higher than last year. A new schedule, which became effective October 19, added $500 more to the entire schedule, from minimum to normal maximum salaries, and $750 in extended-service increments. For teachers having completed 35 years of service the increase in October was $1250.

Salary Provisions for Quality of Service

Questioned by teachers, side-stepped by administrators

SCHOOL PEOPLE ARE TOLD that there are superior teachers and "less superior" teachers and that the difference in quality should determine teacher salary. Many teachers agree that ideally quality of service is an appropriate criterion in determining teacher salary. But most teachers are skeptical about any instrument used to measure their professional competence. The teachers want to know: Are the instruments and procedures fair? Are they statistically valid? Are they reliable?

In spite of the recent resurgence of interest in quality-of-service provisions, the obstacle of evaluation still stands as a formidable barrier to the acceptance and use of them. Here are some facts from a recent NEA Research Division study of practices in 1958-59:

- One in 6 urban school districts provides for a reward or a penalty to recognize quality of service in the salary schedule.
- The percent of large urban school districts providing superior-service maximums, after decreasing for 14 years, is now increasing slightly.
- Over one-fourth of the urban school districts having superior-service maximums in 1957-58 dropped them in 1958-59.
- One in 10 urban school boards has authorized the granting of superior-service maximums, but only about 6 percent actually used such a provision in 1958-59.
- Thirteen percent of the urban school districts have salary provisions for penalizing teachers for unsatisfactory service, but only about 3 percent imposed a penalty in 1958-59.
- Forty-six percent of the reporting superintendents of districts having quality-of-service provisions stated that they thought such a provision had a good effect on the level of performance of nearly all teachers, and 38 percent, that it had a good effect on the morale of nearly all teachers.

One-Sixth of the Urban Districts

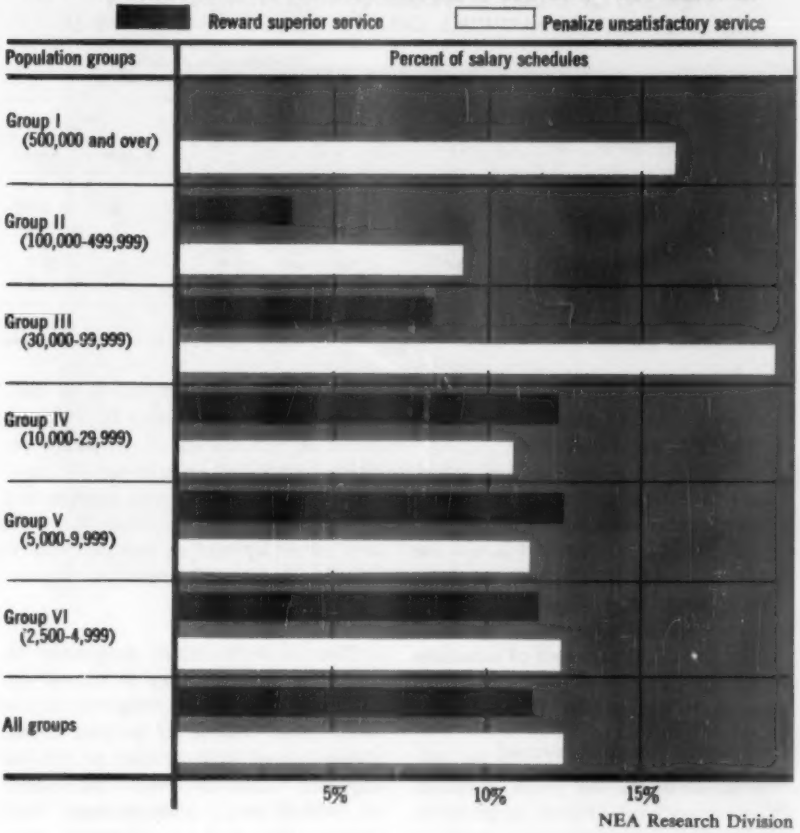
One in 6 salary schedules from urban school districts provided recognition for quality of service in 1958-59. This 17 percent comprised over 7 percent that had provisions for recognizing both superior and unsatisfactory service, 5 percent that had provisions only for penalizing teachers, and 4 percent that had provisions only for rewarding superior service. This information is based on a study of 2722 salary schedule documents.

A quality-of-service salary schedule may *reward* superior teachers in various ways. It may accelerate a teacher's progress toward the maximum salary. It may place a teacher in a separate and more remunerative salary class. It may provide a bonus for exceptionally meritorious service. For a teacher already at maximum salary, the schedule may provide an additional step or steps beyond the normal maximum to a superior-service maximum.

To *penalize* a teacher whose services are unsatisfactory, a quality-of-service schedule may have provisions for withholding part or all of the teacher's annual increment. Under certain conditions it may even provide for a reduction of the teacher's salary, or it may hold a teacher on the bottom track of a multiple-track schedule.

The quality-of-service salary provisions were tabulated for six urban

FEW SALARY SCHEDULES RECOGNIZE QUALITY OF SERVICE



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population groups. The percents were as follows:

Population groups	Percent of schedules authorizing	
	Rewards for superior service	Penalties for unsatisfactory service
I—500,000 and over	....	16.0%
II—100,000-499,999	3.6%	9.1
III—30,000-99,999	8.1	19.3
IV—10,000-29,999	12.2	10.9
V—5,000-9,999	12.4	11.1
VI—2,500-4,999	11.8	12.2
All groups	11.2%	12.6%

The percents of schedules having penalty provisions were greater in large urban school districts than in small districts in 1958-59. On the other hand, there were relatively many more schedules with reward provisions in small urban school districts than in large ones.

One in 10

Examination of 2722 salary schedules, which represent 72 percent of the urban school districts, showed that 1 in 10 districts had provisions for a superior-service maximum in 1958-59. This is only one of several types of rewards, but it is the one most often used. The majority of these provisions were gen-

PERCENT OF SALARY SCHEDULES HAVING PROVISIONS FOR SUPERIOR-SERVICE MAXIMUMS, URBAN SCHOOL DISTRICTS, 1958-59

Population groups	Number of salary schedules received	Schedules having provisions for superior-service maximums			
		Specified amounts	Authorization only	Total	
				Number	Percent
Group I—500,000 and over	25	....	....	....	....
Group II—100,000-499,999	110	0.9%	2.7%	4	3.6%
Group III—30,000-99,999	394	2.6	4.8	29	7.4
Group IV—10,000-29,999	1,121	3.6	7.0	117	10.4
Group V—5,000-9,999	800	3.1	8.4	92	11.5
Group VI—2,500-4,999	272	1.8	10.0	32	11.8
All districts	2,722	3.0%	7.1%	274	10.1%

eral authorizations. Only a small percent stated a definite amount to be paid to the superior teacher.

Although 10 percent of all urban school districts had provisions for superior-service maximums, only 6 percent of all districts reported actual use of the provisions in 1958-59.

More small than large urban school districts provided superior-service maximums; in fact, the percent of schedules providing superior-service maximums increased as size of district decreased.

Downward Trend Reversed

Since 1938-39, the NEA Research Division has kept tabs on large urban school districts having superior-service maximum provisions. A 20-year trend in superior-service maximums is illustrated by a line graph. In 1938-39, about 20 percent of all schedules examined provided superior-service maximums. By 1952-53, this percent had fallen to a low of 4.0. Then the trend line turned upward so that in 1958-59, 6.2 percent had this provision.

High Turnover

The 1958-59 salary schedules revealed a high turnover in school districts providing for superior-service maximums. About 27 percent of the urban school districts that in 1957-58 reported superior-service maximums, in 1958-59 sent a schedule from which the provision had been dropped. Only 56 percent of the districts were known

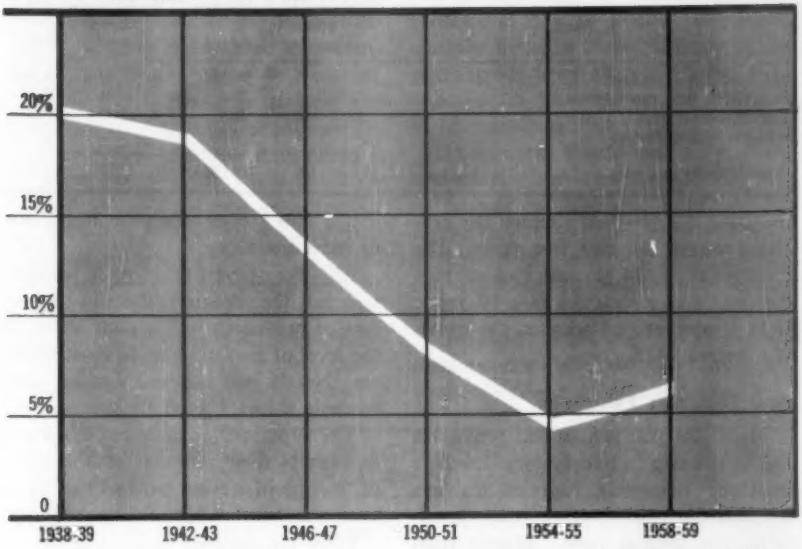
WHAT HAPPENED TO THE 1957-58 SALARY-SCHEDULE PROVISIONS FOR SUPERIOR-SERVICE MAXIMUMS

Population groups*	Provision dropped in 1958-59		Provision continued in 1958-59		No schedule received in 1958-59	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Group II—100,000-499,999	1	25.0%	3	75.0%	...	...
Group III—30,000-99,999	5	18.5	19	70.4	3	11.1%
Group IV—10,000-29,999	32	28.8	67	60.4	12	10.8
Group V—5,000-9,999	27	29.0	50	53.8	16	17.2
Group VI—2,500-4,999	6	19.4	11	35.5	14	45.2
All districts reporting provision in 1957-58	71	26.7%	150	56.4%	45	16.9%

* No Group I districts (500,000 and over in population) had provisions for superior-service maximums in 1957-58.

DOWNWARD TREND IN SUPERIOR-SERVICE MAXIMUMS IS REVERSED

Percent of districts 30,000 and over in population



NEA Research Division

to be keeping the provision. It is regrettable that 1958-59 salary schedules from 17 percent of the school districts that provided superior-service maximums in 1957-58 were not available for comparison. If these 17 percent had dropped these provisions in the same proportion as those that reported, only about two-thirds of the superior-service provisions had survived.

In 1958-59, 124 new school districts were added to the list of districts having superior-service maximums. Of this number, 31 were definitely identified as having added the provision in 1958-59. For the remaining 93 districts the year of adoption is not on file.

Most provisions for superior-service maximums have not been in the salary schedules very long. Over half of the

PERCENT OF DISTRICTS REPORTING NONUSE OF SUPERIOR-SERVICE MAXIMUMS AND SALARY PENALTY PROVISIONS

Population groups	Superior-service maximums		Penalty provisions	
	Number of districts reporting on use or nonuse	Percent granting no superior-service maximums	Number of districts reporting	Percent imposing no penalties
Group I—500,000 and over	....	.....	1	100.0%
Group II—100,000–499,999	2	50.0%	9	66.7
Group III—30,000–99,999	14	43.0	42	64.3
Group IV—10,000–29,999	42	35.8	92	78.3
Group V—5,000–9,999	35	42.9	91	85.7
Group VI—2,500–4,999	11	45.4	45	75.6
All districts	104	40.3%	280	77.8%

SUPERINTENDENTS' OPINIONS OF EFFECT OF QUALITY-OF-SERVICE SALARY PROVISIONS ON TEACHERS

Effect	Teacher morale		Level of performance	
	Number reporting	Percent	Number reporting	Percent
Good effect for most teachers	75	38.2%	89	46.1%
Good effect for some, poor for some	58	29.6	41	21.3
Little noticeable effect	55	28.1	63	32.6
Poor effect for most teachers	8	4.1	....	....
All superintendents reporting	196	100.0%	193	100.0%

reporting districts had adopted the provision within the past five years. The great majority, 84 percent, had adopted the provision within the past 10 years. Only 3 percent had adopted the provision before 1938.

Few Teachers Penalized

More salary schedules had provisions for penalizing unsatisfactory teachers than for rewarding superior teachers in 1958-59. However, penalty provisions are seldom used. Seventy-eight percent of the districts having penalty provisions reported that no penalty was imposed on any teacher in 1958-59.

Unlike penalty provisions, superior-service maximums were actually used in 1958-59 by over half the districts reporting them. But 40 percent reported that no teacher in the school system was receiving a salary differential in recognition of superior service, even though the schedule permitted it.

Effects on Teacher Morale and Level of Performance

Superintendents of school districts having quality-of-service provisions in their salary schedules were asked to express their opinions on the effects of these provisions. Nearly 4 in 10 said that quality-of-service provisions had a good effect on the morale of most teachers; about 3 in 10, that it was good only for some teachers, and another 3 in 10 that it had little noticeable effect. A very small group believed that it had a poor effect on the morale of most teachers.

All the reporting superintendents rejected the premise that quality-of-service provisions had a poor effect on the level of performance of most teachers. Nearly half believed that for most teachers it had a good effect.

The superintendents were also asked to express their opinions of the value of quality-of-service provisions. Here are some selected pro and con remarks.

There are problems in the execution of any plan for facilitating merit rating. These problems should be studied and solved. The fact that any system will not be totally correct should not stop the use and improvement of such programs. (Wyoming)

I did not originate this plan. I questioned it when I first came here. I now believe in it 100 percent. (California)

No particular problems in a small school system where teachers understand and accept the judgment of the evaluators. (Massachusetts)

Tried this approach here two years ago—backfired, and still trying to pick up the pieces. (Minnesota)

I attend all national and many other conventions and meetings. I have heard of no merit rating system in schools or industry which really works. (Minnesota)

A small group of capable semi-lackadaisical people will strive a little harder. The best can only continue to do the best. The others will simply become discouraged, even more so than at present. (New Jersey)

For further details on quality-of-service provisions see: National Education Association, Research Division. *Quality-of-Service Provisions in Salary Schedules, 1958-59.* Research Report 1959-R24. 75¢. In process.

The Unequal Load

A ROUGH MEASURE of the difference among states in the weight of the educational load is the number of potential adult workers, 21 to 64 years of age, who are available to support the education of a child of school age (5-17 years). For the United States as a whole, this ratio is 2.2. Variations from this average ratio greatly influence the relative ability of the states to provide education of high quality.

To state this load distribution in another way: For every 100 potential workers in the nation there are 46 children of school age to be educated. When the financial support of schools is primarily restricted to state and local sources, as it is at present, every 100 workers living in New York State support the education of only 37 American children; in New Jersey, 38 children; in Massachusetts, 39 children.

On the other hand, these same methods which limit the financial support of schools to state and local sources, force every 100 workers in New Mexico to support the education of 66 American children; in South Carolina, 64 children; in Mississippi, 62 children.

Generally, states that have the most children per worker also have the smallest average income per worker.

RELATIONSHIP OF SCHOOL-AGE POPULATION (5-17 YEARS) TO ADULT POTENTIAL WORKING POPULATION (21-64 YEARS), JULY 1, 1957

State	Number of children per 100 potential workers	Number of potential workers per child
Alabama	56.9	1.8
Alaska	59.2	1.7
Arizona	55.7	1.8
Arkansas	57.3	1.7
California	42.2	2.4
Colorado	48.2	2.1
Connecticut	39.7	2.5
Delaware	42.6	2.3
District of Columbia	30.3	3.3
Florida	43.4	2.3
Georgia	56.3	1.8
Hawaii	55.4	1.8
Idaho	56.2	1.8
Illinois	40.6	2.5
Indiana	46.0	2.2
Iowa	46.6	2.1
Kansas	47.0	2.1
Kentucky	54.6	1.8
Louisiana	55.9	1.8
Maine	48.2	2.1
Maryland	45.1	2.2
Massachusetts	39.0	2.6
Michigan	46.2	2.2
Minnesota	48.1	2.1
Mississippi	61.8	1.6
Missouri	42.0	2.4
Montana	51.1	2.0
Nebraska	45.3	2.2
Nevada	42.8	2.3
New Hampshire	44.1	2.3
New Jersey	38.4	2.6
New Mexico	65.6	1.5
New York	36.7	2.7
North Carolina	54.9	1.8
North Dakota	53.8	1.9
Ohio	44.1	2.3
Oklahoma	48.5	2.1
Oregon	45.3	2.2
Pennsylvania	40.9	2.4
Rhode Island	39.7	2.5
South Carolina	63.5	1.6
South Dakota	51.5	1.9
Tennessee	50.7	2.0
Texas	51.1	2.0
Utah	59.1	1.7
Vermont	49.7	2.0
Virginia	50.5	2.0
Washington	47.2	2.1
West Virginia	53.9	1.9
Wisconsin	46.1	2.2
Wyoming	52.6	1.9
Total 50 states and D. C.	45.5	2.2

Source:

U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census. Estimates of the Civilian Population by Broad Age Groups, for States and Selected Outlying Areas: July 1, 1957. Current Population Reports, Series P-25, No. 194. Washington, D. C.: the Bureau, February 16, 1959. p. 4. Calculations made by the NEA Research Division.

Local Nonproperty Taxes

are being adopted by more cities, counties, and in some states, school districts

OVER HALF of public elementary- and secondary-school revenue comes from property taxes. This traditional source of support will continue to pay in the years ahead a large portion of school costs.

But the schools need more money just as city and other local governments do. Their revenue problems are of common origin. People are moving to different homes, they may work far from home, real estate does not reflect adequately the capacity to support public services, and people are asking more of their government.

High-income people are moving to the suburbs, but they continue to work in the central city. This works a hardship on the central city because street maintenance, police and fire protection, and other services are still required.

At the same time the suburbs must provide schools, streets, water, and other services for a rapidly increasing population. Many of these areas have little or no business or industry located within their taxing boundaries.

Reforms in the structure of school and other local governments have been suggested and are being made. School districts are being reorganized. Metropolitan governments are being established by which the central city and the surrounding suburbs become a single taxing unit for special purposes such as schools. Also, these local governments are turning to nonproperty taxes for assistance in the solution of their revenue problems.

Nonproperty Taxes in Use

On an accelerated scale since World War II, states have been authorizing counties, school districts, and other local governments to levy certain types of nonproperty taxes. Of all the states, Pennsylvania has given its local governments the greatest leeway in this method of raising money. In 1947 the state granted cities, boroughs, townships, and school districts the power to tax anything not taxed by the state.

Under this power Pennsylvania school districts may levy flat-rate income taxes; deed-transfer taxes; poll taxes; mercantile licenses based on gross receipts; and trailer, business privilege, occupation, and amusement taxes. In 1957-58, of $267,295,835 total tax collections for schools, excluding Philadelphia and Pittsburgh, $54,409,318 was raised from taxes other than on real estate.

New York State has also conferred taxing power on its local governments, but has specified the taxes that may be levied by particular units. Cities and counties may levy a retail sales tax, a tax on food in "luxury" restaurants, a tax on admissions, and a use tax on cars and trucks. City school districts may tax consumer utility bills up to 3 percent, but few are doing so.

Revenue Potential

Of all local nonproperty taxes, income taxes and retail sales taxes bring the greatest returns. The local income tax typically is levied at a low flat rate, without exemptions, on income earned within the city, on income earned outside the city by the city's residents, and on the net earnings of corporations and unincorporated businesses within the city. Currently local governments in Alabama, Kentucky, Missouri, Ohio,

and Pennsylvania are permitted to levy income taxes.

The experience of Philadelphia shows the revenue-raising potentialities of this tax. With a flat rate of 1½ percent, Philadelphia raised 20 percent of its general fund receipts in 1940; and in 1958, it raised about 33 percent.

States authorizing local retail sales taxes include Alabama, Alaska, Arizona, California, Colorado, Illinois, Louisiana, Mississippi, New Mexico, New York, Utah, and Virginia. Half of these states—Alabama, California, Illinois, Mississippi, New Mexico, and Utah—provide for state collection of the tax, but the decision to levy the tax is local.

The experience of New Orleans shows that the local retail sales tax is also a money raiser. In 1941 at a 2-percent rate, the city collected $3,030,-844; in 1955 at a 1-percent rate, $7,437,369.

If local governments, including school districts, are going to levy any kind of nonproperty tax, their consideration of alternatives should recognize some common taxation principles.

Principles of Taxation

These principles include the following:

- Stability and flexibility of yield
- Administrative feasibility
- Equity, justice, and convenience for taxpayers
- Protection of economic values.

The property tax, often thought of as a basic tax for local governments, has proved itself both stable over the years and a good producer of revenue. If a local government, such as a school district, decides to supplement this tax, it should choose a tax whose yield would be more flexible—both the flat-rate income tax and the retail sales tax qualify. The retail sales tax would probably be less flexible than the income tax, but more flexible than the property tax.

The criterion of administrative feasibility does not present an insurmountable obstacle for several taxes if the proper attention is given to administrative aspects in framing the tax legislation and if trained, competent, and conscientious administrators are selected. Property, flat-rate income, general sales, and selective sales taxes can be administered by local governments with a tolerable degree of equity and economy.

To analyze a tax for equity, justice, and convenience is difficult because three tax systems—federal, state, and local—enter the picture. Since the federal government has the most sharply graduated scale of income taxes and since it is best able to enforce the tax in the upper brackets, the states have tended to limit themselves to moderately graduated taxes or taxes upon consumer spending. Since the states are better able to administer the graduated tax than most local governments, the local governments have tended to limit themselves to the property tax, the flat-rate income tax, and the sales tax. The criterion, then, needs to be applied on the combined effect of all taxes on the taxpayer.

As for economic effects, retail sales taxes penalize retailers unless they cover a wide area such as a county. For an equivalent amount of revenue an income tax would probably be less likely to have harmful effects than other types of taxes levied locally.

The evidence is that local nonproperty taxes will be extended. If they are to be levied for school purposes, care should be taken to explore these questions of principle in advance of action.

For further details see: National Education Association, Committee on Educational Finance. *New Local Sources of Tax Revenues.* Washington, D. C.: the Association, 1959. 36 p. 50¢.

High-School Diplomas

Over 90 percent of the high schools offer only one type of diploma

THE HIGH-SCHOOL DIPLOMA presents several problems to educators today:

Is the single diploma adequate for the variety of programs and graduation requirements of the comprehensive high school?

With compulsory attendance laws pushing the average age of leaving school well into the high-school years, and with special education programs for the retarded, should some recognition other than a diploma, such as the certificate of attendance, be given to those who have made the effort but do not have the ability to meet graduation requirements?

Has the high-school diploma ever given the type of information that is really useful to future employers or teachers without being supplemented by a number of other records?

These and other questions prompted the NEA Research Division to obtain up-to-date information through a questionnaire that elicited 866 usable replies from high-school principals.

The replies were divided into three groups by size; the totals for all schools reporting were weighted to give the correct representation to schools of each size. The present tense is used in reporting the findings, but the facts were collected during the school year 1958-59.

Number of Diplomas

About 80 percent of the high schools reporting give only one type of recognition of graduation to all graduates. About 13 percent give only one type of diploma, but substitute a certificate of attendance for those members of the graduating class who are unable to meet the requirements for this diploma. The percent of high schools giving one type of diploma, with or without a certificate of attendance, is, therefore, approximately 93. Almost 7 percent give two or more types of diplomas.

The single diploma, without a certificate of attendance, is found most often in the small high school of fewer than 300 students, but percents are close for larger schools. Schools of fewer than 300 students and schools of 1000 or more students are more likely to give a certificate of attendance than are middle-sized schools of 300-999 students. A multiple-diploma system is about three times as prevalent in medium-size and large schools as in small high schools.

Types of Diplomas

In the 6.7 percent of schools that give more than one type of diploma, each diploma has some definite requirements associated with a specific course of study or with the passing of certain tests such as the *New York State Regents* and the *General Educational Development Tests.* In a few cases, special diplomas are given for completion of high-school requirements while in the armed services or through correspondence study.

Primarily those diplomas that are given for the completion of a particular course of study are shown in the table below. The requirements for these courses of study are considered in another article in this issue of the NEA RESEARCH BULLETIN.

In schools having a multiple-diploma system, the "general diploma" is given for the completion of the "general course of study" for students with no pronounced academic or vocational

aim. Other students in these schools pursue more specialized courses.

Type of diploma given	Percent of schools, by enrollment: Under 300	300-999	1,000 and over	All schools
General diploma	2.6%	10.9%	11.6%	5.3%
Academic diploma	3.4	10.6	11.6	5.8
Vocational diploma	0.8	7.1	5.8	2.7
Commercial diploma	2.1	9.1	8.7	4.3
Other types of diplomas	0.8	3.5	2.2	1.6

Certificates of attendance, when considered separately from either the single- or multiple-diploma system, are given by 14.9 percent of all the high schools: 15.7 percent of the schools with 300 or fewer students, 11.8 percent of the schools with 300-999 students, and 18.1 percent of the schools with 1000 or more students.

Supplemental Information

In most cases the only individual item on the high-school diploma, along with recognition of graduation, is the student's name. Only a few schools give any other type of information:

Information given	Percent of schools, by enrollment: Under 300	300-999	1,000 and over	All schools
Student's name	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Achievement record	4.1	5.1	4.3	4.4
List of subjects taken	2.3	2.1	1.4	2.2
Record of participation in student activities	1.3	0.3	0.7	1.0
Attendance record	0.8	1.2	0.7	0.9
Special honors	2.8	7.4	11.6	4.6
Health record	0.3	0.3	.....	0.2

Anticipated Changes

Slightly more than two-thirds, or 70.4 percent, of all the schools indicate that they contemplate no change in their present diploma system.

Some 30 percent are contemplating some type of change; about 15 percent are thinking of adding one or more types of diplomas; 14 percent are considering a certificate of attendance. Those who anticipate giving additional information on the diploma total 2 percent, and a still smaller percent contemplate giving additional material *with* the diploma.

The Meaning of the Diploma

Critics of current high-school education have attacked the high-school diploma as meaningless, saying that in the past the diploma was awarded only to those who had demonstrated their ability to measure up to academic standards; now, these critics maintain, diplomas are given to almost anyone who attends high school faithfully for four years.

Supporters of current high-school education would probably agree that the high-school diploma has lost some of its earlier significance, but might argue that the college degree has become more available and, therefore, is more often required.

They would probably maintain that standards for the high-school diploma have not been lowered, but have simply been varied to meet the needs of a vast high-school population, which is approaching 100 percent of its age group. They would undoubtedly recognize that the questions about diplomas outlined at the beginning of this article have still to be adequately answered.

For further details see: National Education Association, Research Division. *High-School Diplomas and Graduation Requirements.* Research Memo 1959-27. Washington, D. C.: the Association, November 1959. 50¢.

Loyalty Requirements

Teachers in 33 states must sign oaths

"I, _____, DO SOLEMLY SWEAR or affirm that I will support and defend the Constitution of the United States and of the state of _____." So reads the loyalty oath required of many public-school teachers in the United States. Some oaths are not so short.

In 19 of the 33 states in which teachers must sign oaths, they must swear to discharge faithfully the duties of a teacher; in eight states they must swear to teach specific aspects of patriotism. Three states require the teachers to swear to refrain from teaching specific theories of government; 12 require them to swear to refrain from advocating change in government by violent means.

Constitutionality

The primary issue that has arisen in challenges of the constitutionality of loyalty requirements is not whether disloyal teachers may legally teach in the public schools, but whether the methods adopted to eliminate disloyal teachers are legal and constitutional.

Loyalty requirements have been attacked in the courts on several grounds: that they violate the First, Fifth, and Fourteenth Amendments to the federal Constitution or that they are *ex post facto* laws.

The courts often have said that an individual has no *right* to teach in the public schools. Public employment is a *privilege*, not a right. Individuals have the right to talk politics, but they have no constitutional right to be public employees. As the Supreme Court of the United States said:

> If, . . . a person is found to be unfit and is disqualified from employment in the public school system because of membership in a listed organization, he is not thereby denied the right of free speech and assembly. His freedom of choice between membership in the organization and employment in the school system might be limited, but not his freedom of speech or assembly, except in the remote sense that limitation is inherent in every choice. Certainly such limitation is not one the state may not make in the exercise of its police power to protect the schools from pollution and thereby defend its existence.

The courts require that *scienter* must be present if the law requiring the oath is to be held constitutional. *Scienter* means *knowingly*. For example: An oath may require that the affiant swear that he is not a member of a subversive organization. Only if a teacher belonged to an organization which he *knew* to be subversive when he subscribed to the oath, could he be held to have violated the oath, if *scienter* is present. The Supreme Court of the United States has held unconstitutional a statute which did not require *scienter*, as a denial of due process of law.

A review of the so-called loyalty cases brings out several points on which the courts appear to be in general agreement:

- An individual has no *right* to teach in a public school.
- The state may adopt reasonable methods for screening out disloyal teachers.
- Loyalty oaths are reasonable methods for accomplishing this purpose.
- Without *scienter* the oath laws will be held unconstitutional.

Testimony in Investigations

In several states, statutory provisions require teachers to testify when called before investigating committees. Although few of these statutes have been before the courts, the courts have upheld those that have.

The question at issue in these cases is the right of teachers to refuse to testify on the basis of the Fifth Amendment to the federal Constitution. This amendment provides in part: "No person . . . shall be compelled in any criminal case to be a witness against himself."

This privilege against self-incrimination would be a narrow one if the words of the Fifth Amendment were taken literally; that is, no person could exercise the privilege except in a criminal proceeding in a court of law.

Obviously, a literal interpretation would not extend the application of the privilege outside a judicial proceeding to, for instance, a hearing before a Congressional committee. By judicial interpretation, however, the scope of the privilege extends to virtually every type of official proceeding, including legislative inquiry. The witness may exercise his privilege against self-incrimination if he believes that his testimony may provide evidence by which his guilt may be established.

Several cases have arisen under laws requiring teachers to testify when called before investigating committees. A teacher in New York was dismissed for refusal to waive his privilege against self-incrimination when he appeared before a committee of the state legislature. The city charter provided for dismissal under such circumstances. The dismissal was upheld on the familiar ground that though the teacher had a right to exercise his privilege against self-incrimination, he had no right to be a public-school teacher. The court stated that

> it is clear that the statute under attack here is not violative of any constitutional restriction since there is not denial of the privilege of self-incrimination.
>
> The Legislature did not purport to abrogate the right; it undertook to exercise its discretion as to the wisdom of retaining in public service an employee who exercised the privilege when his official acts are under review. . . . Clearly, it is a legislative prerogative . . . to say that it is proper that public officials should not be permitted to hold office and at the same time shield themselves by a claim of privilege in the course of an investigation of their official acts.

It seems certain that if a legislature determines that an organization stands for overthrow of the government by unlawful means and that a member by his membership supports this doctrine, it is within the power of the legislature to require the dismissal of members of the organization from public service, after a hearing. Also, when a teacher is discharged for claiming his privilege against self-incrimination, the clear trend is that the courts will uphold the discharge.

Conflicting Views

These methods for insuring loyalty among public-school teachers have been considered reasonable by the courts. The courts have declared that the state or community has the right to protect itself against subversive influences by means of oath and loyalty laws.

Those who believe that loyalty requirements for public-school teachers are desirable, necessary, and reasonable, insist that their children be protected from those who would destroy the present form of government or change it by unlawful means. Those who do not approve of these requirements also wish to protect the children, but do not believe that the loyalty requirements achieve this purpose. They reason that such loyalty oaths or requirements will not guarantee loyalty; they believe that to require oaths of one segment of the population and not of others implies that that segment is less loyal and that if there is such doubt, their loyalty should be proved by evidence more tangible than a signature on a loyalty oath.

For further details see: National Education Association, Research Division. *The Teacher and the Law*. Research Monograph 1959-M3. Washington, D. C.: the Association, September 1959. 90 p. $1.

School finance, retirement, and sick leave provisions score high in

State School Legislation, 1959

DURING 1959, ALL STATES except Kentucky and Mississippi held legislative sessions.

In most states, appropriations bills for the 1959-61 biennium for public elementary and secondary schools and for state-supported institutions of higher learning came before the legislators. Many other measures affecting public education were also acted upon.

As in previous years, the state education associations, through their legislative programs and activities, once again played an important role in securing good school laws. The 1959 legislative goals of 44 state associations, and the significant enactments written into law in 1959 have been reported to the NEA Research Division.

Among the school laws passed by the legislatures in 1959 which state education associations regarded as major accomplishments in their respective states are these:

- A certification law in Connecticut which requires all new elementary-school teachers to complete a fifth year of college work within 10 years from the start of teaching to qualify for full certification. A similiar provision already applies to secondary-school teachers.
- A state-wide sick leave law in Washington which requires every school district to provide 10 days' leave of absence a year for illness or injury without loss of pay for each certificated employee. Sick leave is cumulative to 180 days so long as the employee remains in the school district.
- A revision of the state minimum-salary law in Wisconsin which raises to $4000 the statutory minimum salaries for beginning teachers with bachelor's degrees.
- A tenure law in Hawaii which establishes procedural safeguards for permanent teachers who are to be dismissed or demoted. Under its provisions, the teacher must be given written notice with reasons for demotion or termination of contract. The teacher has 10 days to demand a public or a private hearing, which must be set within 30 days of such request, but with 15 days' notice to the teacher of the time and place. Both parties may be represented by counsel and may produce witnesses. The teacher must be furnished with a complete stenographic record of the hearing. If the decision is favorable to the teacher, the charges and the record of the hearing are to be physically expunged from the minutes. The teacher may appeal an unfavorable decision to the court.

School Finance

Legislative objectives in school finance may take the form of a proposed new pattern of sharing state and local support of the public schools. Or they may be concerned with improving existing state distribution formulas through increased allotments in one or more components of a particular plan. Coupled with these aims, in many instances, are proposals for increasing state and local revenue sources, for strengthening and improving local assessment practices, and for raising tax levy and bond limits.

Although the specific legislative goals differed from state to state, according to the state school finance program al-

ready in effect, the overriding concern of the state education associations in 1959 was to increase the state's share of financial support for the public schools.

Eleven state education associations reported their major legislative achievements in school finance. Additional funds appropriated for higher educational institutions were singled out by the associations in Maryland and West Virginia as their principal accomplishment. Twelve associations regarded the failure to secure increased state financial support for schools as their major legislative defeat in 1959.

Retirement and Social Security

In one form or another, almost all state education associations promoted retirement legislation. By and large, the aim was to improve retirement benefits for teachers in service as well as for teachers already retired.

During 1959 the legislatures in 36 states passed measures altering the retirement laws. Improved legislation in this field of teacher welfare is directly traceable to the programs of the state education associations.

Those teachers in Hawaii, New York, Tennessee, and Wisconsin who are not now covered, were given a second opportunity to elect social security coverage. In Minnesota, a co-ordinated retirement and social security plan on a divisional basis was enacted. South Dakota, which repealed its retirement law when public employees were made eligible for social security coverage in 1950, this year enacted a law establishing a retirement program.

Salaries

Better salaries for teachers are an essential element in meeting today's education needs. Salary increases for teachers and administrators were a specific goal for 27 state education associations. For others, this aim was combined with their school finance proposals. Obtaining raises in teachers' salaries was termed a major success in Alabama, Louisiana, North Carolina, and Oklahoma.

Upward revision of state minimum-salary requirements was the objective of 17 associations. Nine realized this goal in whole or in part. Three states without minimum salary laws—Connecticut, Michigan, and Minnesota—tried but failed to secure passage of such a statute.

Tenure and Contracts

At least 16 state education associations had goals respecting tenure and contracts. Alabama, Florida, and Illinois were concerned with defending and protecting their existing tenure laws against threatened inroads. Each was notably successful.

Maine reported a new provision which allows a hearing to a teacher who, after having completed the three-year probationary period, receives notice of nonrenewal of contract. The Hawaii improved tenure law has already been described. The state association in New York succeeded in its efforts to have established a statute of limitations on bringing charges against a tenure teacher.

Leave-of-Absence Provisions

In all, some 16 state education associations strove for leave-of-absence legislation. Hawaii and Illinois secured salary payments for teachers on sabbatical leave.

Nine states obtained improved sick leave allowances. As a result of new laws, the teachers in Maine, North Dakota, and Washington will benefit from state-wide sick leave provisions for the first time.

For further details see: National Education Association, Research Division. *High Spots in State School Legislation.* Research Report 1959-R22. Washington, D. C.: the Association, November 1959. 50¢.

School Secretaries and Clerks

1958-59 study shows increasing use of salary schedules

A FULL 52-WEEK work year is now common for secretarial and clerical employees in the central offices of school districts over 30,000 in population. This was revealed in a report recently published by the Educational Research Service of the NEA, which had not conducted a similar survey since 1952-53.

Clerks and secretaries in the offices of individual schools often work only for a period covering approximately the school year. Thus, 49 percent of the districts reported a work year in school offices ranging from 40 to 48 weeks; 41 percent employ secretaries in school offices on a 52-week basis.

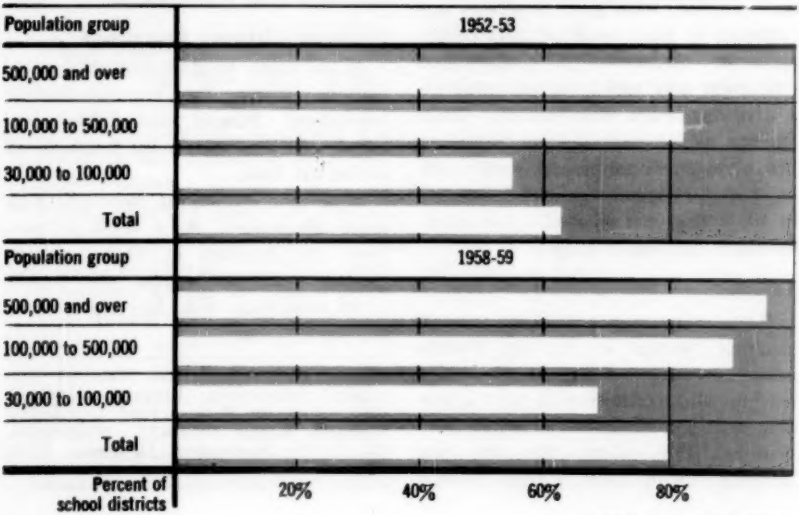
A 40-hour week is predominant in both central and school offices. The following shows the percents of school districts reporting work weeks of various lengths:

Work week	In central office	In school offices
More than 40 hours	5%	3%
40 hours	57	49
38-39 hours	3	1
37½ hours	17	17
35-37 hours	17	22
25-34 hours	1	8

The major part of the ERS study is devoted to reporting salary schedules (see graph) and rates of pay for various classes of employees in 195 individual school districts.

For further details see: National Education Association, Research Division and American Association of School Administrators. *Rates of Pay for School Clerical and Secretarial Employees in Urban School Districts over 30,000 in Population, 1958-59.* Educational Research Service Circular No. 4, 1959. Washington, D. C.: the Association, June 1959. 61 p. $1.50.

MOST LARGE URBAN SCHOOL DISTRICTS HAVE SALARY SCHEDULES FOR SECRETARIAL AND CLERICAL EMPLOYEES



NEA Research Division

High-School Graduation Requirements

Almost 80 percent of the schools have only one required course of study

EVENTS IN THE international sphere have deepened the concern of the American public about education in general and high school in particular.

Numerous publications and studies, such as the Conant report, have focused attention on high-school graduation requirements—the subject-matter specifications and standards of academic achievement behind the awarding of a high-school diploma.

In response to the evidence of growing interest in this question, the NEA Research Division in 1958-59 conducted a questionnaire study of high-school diplomas and graduation requirements. Findings on diplomas are described in another article in this issue of the NEA RESEARCH BULLETIN.

Usable replies to this questionnaire were received from 866 high-school principals. The replies were classified according to school enrollment: (a) under 300 students; (b) 300-999 students; (c) 1000 or more students. Totals for each question were then weighted to give the proper representation to each group.

Variety in Requirements

A high school could, theoretically, have as many sets of graduation requirements as there are students, varying the requirements according to the needs and aims of each student. This is now done to some extent through electives.

About one-fifth of the schools reporting, however, have two to six separately named routes, usually called courses of study, by which the diploma may be reached. Almost four-fifths offered only one course of study.

The figures below show the percents of schools with various numbers of courses of study:

Enrollment	Percent of schools with One course	Two courses	Three courses	Four or more courses
Under 300	86.1%	5.5%	2.6%	5.8%
300-999	67.8	5.4	12.8	14.0
1,000 or more	62.9	9.6	13.4	14.1
All schools	79.8%	5.8%	6.0%	8.4%

The smallest schools seem to have the least variety in graduation requirements, and the largest schools the most. Obviously, the largest schools, of 1000 students or more, can provide multiple courses more efficiently than the smaller schools. Nevertheless, nearly two-thirds of these largest schools have also adhered to a single course of study. If a school has more than one course of study, it is most likely to have four or more.

Types of Courses

Although different schools have different names for the various courses of study offered, most of the courses could be roughly categorized as "Academic," "Commercial," "Vocational," or "General."

Each course of study has a fairly specific goal: The Academic courses are aimed at preparing students for college; the Commercial courses, at preparing students to enter the business world as secretaries, clerks, or bookkeepers; the Vocational courses, some of them supported by federal funds, at preparing students to enter specific

trades. Most schools that have more than one course of study offer a General course for students with none of these specific goals.

Practically all of the 20 percent of schools with several courses offer an Academic course; almost as many offer a General course; over one-half of the 20 percent offer a Vocational or a Commercial course.

Course of study	Percent of schools reporting various courses, by enrollment			
	Under 300	300-999	1,000 or more	All schools
General	13.1%	31.6%	34.1%	19.3%
Academic	14.2	32.8	31.9	20.1
Vocational	7.1	18.8	25.9	11.4
Commercial	8.7	24.5	23.7	13.7
Single course	86.1	67.8	62.9	79.8

Subject Requirements

The traditional unit of measurement of high-school subject matter is the Carnegie Unit, defined as "one year's study in a major subject requiring outside preparation and meeting five days a week or the equivalent." The schools were requested to follow this definition and to report total requirements for grades 9-12.

Subject fields rather than specific subject courses were listed in the questionnaire. A school that lists one unit of mathematics in four different courses of study may require algebra in the Academic course, business arithmetic in the Commercial course and general mathematics in the Vocational and General courses. Such distinctions are very important, but it would have taken an impractically complex questionnaire to collect the information in this detail. Also, differences in interpretation, accounting, and assignment of students among the schools make it difficult to calculate subject-matter requirements with complete exactness.

Other facts were revealed by the questionnaire. For example, in such fields as industrial arts, vocational education, and home economics, requirements may be limited to either girls or boys. Health and physical education and driver education are sometimes required without being given unit credit toward graduation.

Electives

A particular subject field may be offered to students even if it is not required for a particular course of study. Every course of study allows the students to make some choice in subject fields, usually called electives, that are not specified as required for the course.

A school with a single course of study, with a minimum of specific requirements and a broad curriculum from which to choose elective subjects, may actually fulfill the needs and interests of individual students more satisfactorily than a school with multiple courses that are too rigid and specific. Unfortunately, however, the single required course of study in many of the small or poorly supported high schools may be almost identical with the entire curriculum offering.

Single Course of Study

Those schools that have only one course of study for all students, 80 percent of the total, have an average total requirement of 16.5 units for graduation; of these, 9.7 are in specified subject fields, and 6.8 are elective units.

For each subject field, the percents of schools requiring that field were calculated. English is universally required; requirements in social studies, mathematics, and science are practically universal. Health and physical education are required by almost two-thirds of these schools. Percents of schools with requirements in the other subject fields are much smaller.

Most striking of all is the small percent of these schools that have a requirement in foreign languages. Of

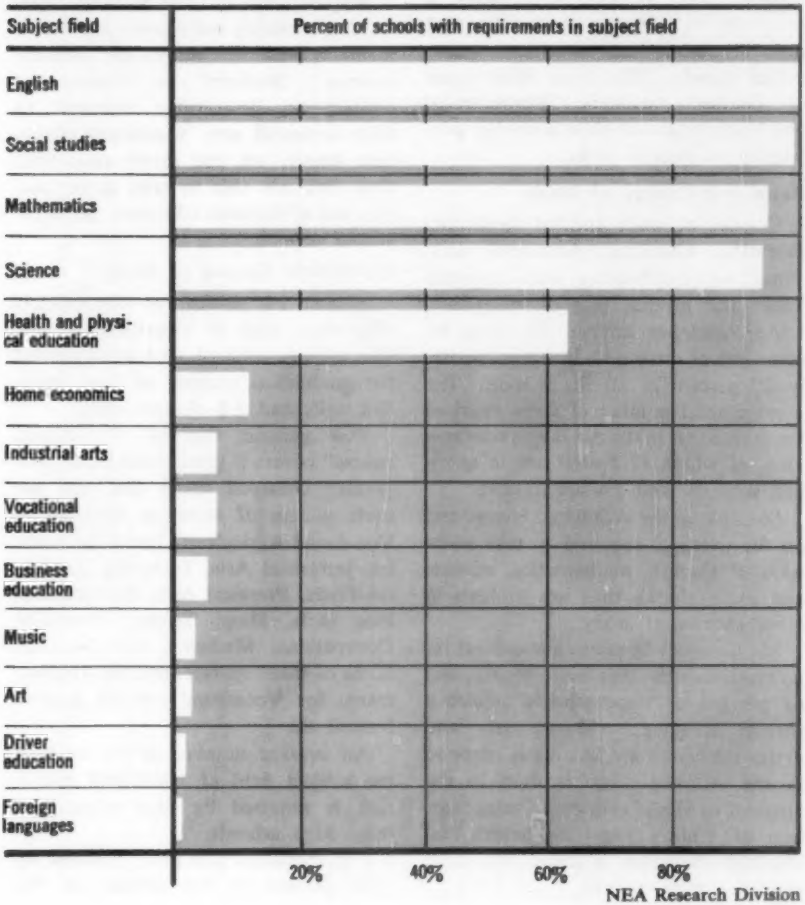
the schools that offer only one course of study, only 0.8 percent have any foreign language requirement, although the majority undoubtedly offer a foreign language as an elective.

In high schools with a single course of study, the English requirement is moving toward 4 units. Many of these schools are requiring at least 2 units of social studies, a unit of mathematics, and a unit of science. Since health and physical education, though required, is often given no unit credit, or only a fractional credit in terms of units, many students probably take considerably more than one year of health and physical education.

General Course of Study

Approximately 19 percent of the schools offer a General course as part of a multiple course-of-study system. The average total number of required units for graduation in the General

GRADUATION REQUIREMENTS IN HIGH SCHOOLS OFFERING ONLY ONE COURSE OF STUDY



NEA Research Division

course is 16.5, of which 10.1 are in specified subject fields, and 6.4 are elective units.

As might be expected, the General course closely resembles the single course in unit requirements. About the same proportion of schools require each subject field, and in approximately the same quantity. No significant differences can be found between the two courses.

Both the General course, having to serve students with no specific postgraduate goal, and the single course, having to be broad enough to serve students with various aims, allow a relatively wide range of election and probably follow state minimum requirements closely. The three other types of courses—Academic, Commercial, and Vocational—all show a smaller proportion of elective units.

Academic Course of Study

Courses of study entitled Academic, Scientific, Classical, Advanced Academic, or Engineering were grouped under the general title of Academic.

An Academic course was listed by some one of these titles by approximately 20 percent of all the schools. The average total number of units required for graduation in the Academic course is 16.6, of which 13.2 units are in specified subjects, and 3.4 are elective.

Students in the Academic course are, on the average, required to take more units of English, mathematics, science, and social studies than are students in other courses of study.

Mathematics becomes a universal requirement in the Academic course, and 62 percent of these schools require a foreign language. Music, art, and driver education are less often required in the Academic course than in the General or single courses. The proportion of schools requiring health and physical education is about the same as in the other courses.

Commercial Course of Study

Commercial courses of study are often entitled Business Education, and, less frequently, Stenography, Distributive Education, Bookkeeping, or Office Occupations.

The Commercial courses, with their heavy concentration in the field of business education—4.5 required units—are even more restrictive than Academic courses. The average total number of required units in the Commercial course is 16.6, of which 14.2 are in specified subjects, and only 2.4 in elective subjects.

Requirements in English, social studies, mathematics, and science are almost identical with the single and General courses. Students in Commercial courses are less often required to take industrial arts, vocational education, music, art, and driver education; thus they are able to take more than one unit of business education per high-school year.

Vocational Course of Study

Almost 14 percent of the schools offer some kind of Vocational course. The average total of 16.4 units needed for graduation consists of 13.6 specified units and 2.8 elective units.

This general title of "Vocational course" covers a great diversity of programs. Grouped under this title are such courses of study as Agriculture, Vocational Agriculture, Home Economics, Industrial Arts, Technical, Technical-Trade, Practical Arts, Practical and Fine Arts, Shop, Trade, Diversified Occupations, Medicine, and Nursing. Some of these courses meet the requirements for Vocational courses granted federal aid.

An average number of 4.3 units in the subject field of vocational education is required by 86.8 percent of these high schools.

The industrial arts field, required by 18.4 percent of the schools in this

PERCENT OF SCHOOLS REQUIRING UNITS IN EACH SUBJECT FIELD AND AVERAGE NUMBER OF UNITS, IF REQUIRED, BY COURSES OF STUDY

Requirement	Schools with single course of study (79.8 percent)[a]		Schools with multiple courses of study							
			General courses (19.3 percent)[a]		Academic courses (20.1 percent)[a]		Commercial courses (13.7 percent)[a]		Vocational courses (11.4 percent)[a]	
	Percent	Average number of units required[b]	Percent	Average number of units required[b]	Percent	Average number of units required[b]	Percent	Average number of units required[b]	Percent	Average number of units required[b]
English	100.0%	3.6	100.0%	3.7	100.0%	3.8	100.0%	3.7	100.0%	3.4
Social Studies	99.0	2.3	100.0	2.5	99.0	2.6	100.0	2.4	100.0	2.2
Mathematics	94.5	1.4	95.5	1.4	100.0	2.4	98.7	1.4	97.4	1.4
Science	94.1	1.5	93.7	1.5	97.1	2.2	89.9	1.4	89.5	1.4
Foreign languages	0.8	2.0	1.8	*	61.5	2.1	3.8	*	.....	....
Health and physical education	62.5	1.1	68.5	1.1	62.5	1.1	62.0	1.1	68.4	1.0
Home economics	11.8	1.2	10.8	1.2	8.7	0.9	5.1	*	23.7	3.3
Business education	4.6	1.2	5.4	1.2	5.8	1.3	100.0	4.5	10.5	*
Industrial arts	6.3	1.0	9.0	1.5	4.8	0.9	1.3	*	18.4	2.4
Vocational education	6.3	1.4	2.7	*	3.8	*	3.8	*	86.8	4.3
Music	3.0	0.6	4.5	0.5	1.9	*	1.3	*	.....	....
Art	2.1	0.6	3.6	*	1.0	*	1.3	*	2.6	*
Driver education	1.9	0.5	6.3	0.5	3.8	*	5.1	*	10.5	*
Elective units	100.0	6.8	100.0	6.4	100.0	3.4	100.0	2.4	100.0	2.8
Units in specified fields	100.0	9.7	100.0	10.1	100.0	13.2	100.0	14.2	100.0	13.6
Total units[c]	.....	16.5	.....	16.5	.....	16.6	.....	16.6	.....	16.4

*No average computed on fewer than five cases.

[a] Schools offering these courses as a percent of the total number of schools.

[b] Average for the schools which require courses in these fields.

[c] Average for all schools offering the course of study indicated.

group, is somewhat broader and less technical than vocational education, and does not receive federal aid. Industrial arts may include some subjects of interest to students not planning to enter a trade.

The Home Economics course of study will account for the relatively high average of 3.3 units in this field.

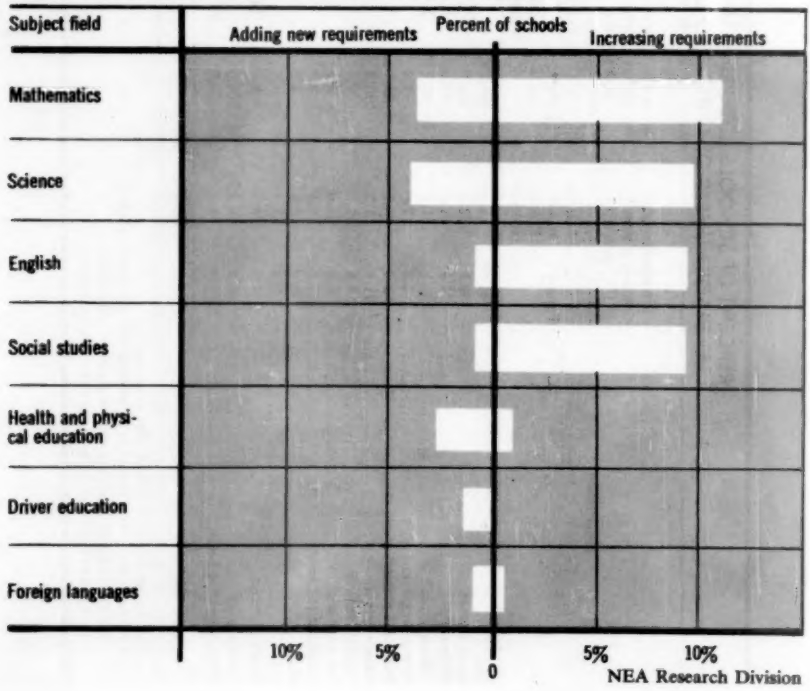
Foreign languages and music are missing entirely from the requirements for vocational courses. Except for these omissions and the technical requirements, there is little difference between the Vocational course and the single and General courses.

Changes in Requirements

The schools were asked to indicate whether or not they had made changes in graduation requirements in the last five years. Over half, or 53 percent, had done so. Thirteen percent had increased the total number of units for graduation. Others had added new subjects and raised requirements in certain fields. In answer to another question, 15 percent of the schools indicated that they were *considering* raising the unit requirements. The average total number of required units in every course of study is now over the 16 Carnegie Units originally recommended for the four-year high school.

A graph shows subjects newly required and those in which requirements have been recently increased. Since credits in English, mathematics, science, and social studies were already required by nearly all the schools, it is not surprising that the percents planning to *increase* requirements in these fields are

CHANGES IN REQUIREMENTS FOR HIGH-SCHOOL GRADUATION MADE IN LAST FIVE YEARS



higher than those planning to *add* these subjects to the curriculum.

Striking, however, is the continued lack of insistence on foreign languages. The emphasis on mathematics and science in the high-school curriculum has obviously increased.

Some schools listed changes that could not be strictly construed as changes in graduation requirements. The most prevalent of these were new subject-matter offerings, noted by 33 percent of the schools. The subject fields most frequently represented by these new classes appear to be science, mathematics, and foreign languages.

Similarity Among Courses

Requirements in the various subject fields do not differ from course to course as substantially as might be expected. Nearly all the schools have some requirement in English, mathematics, social studies, and science, and only the Academic course goes much beyond the others in average units required in science and mathematics. The Commercial and Vocational courses have also an expected concentration in their special fields.

From the information gathered by the questionnaire it is impossible to make judgments about the relative difficulty of different courses of study. The question of whether requirements in *all* the courses of study are adequate is, of course, not answered by this report.

For further details see: National Education Association, Research Division. *High-School Diplomas and Graduation Requirements.* Research Memo 1959-27. 50¢.

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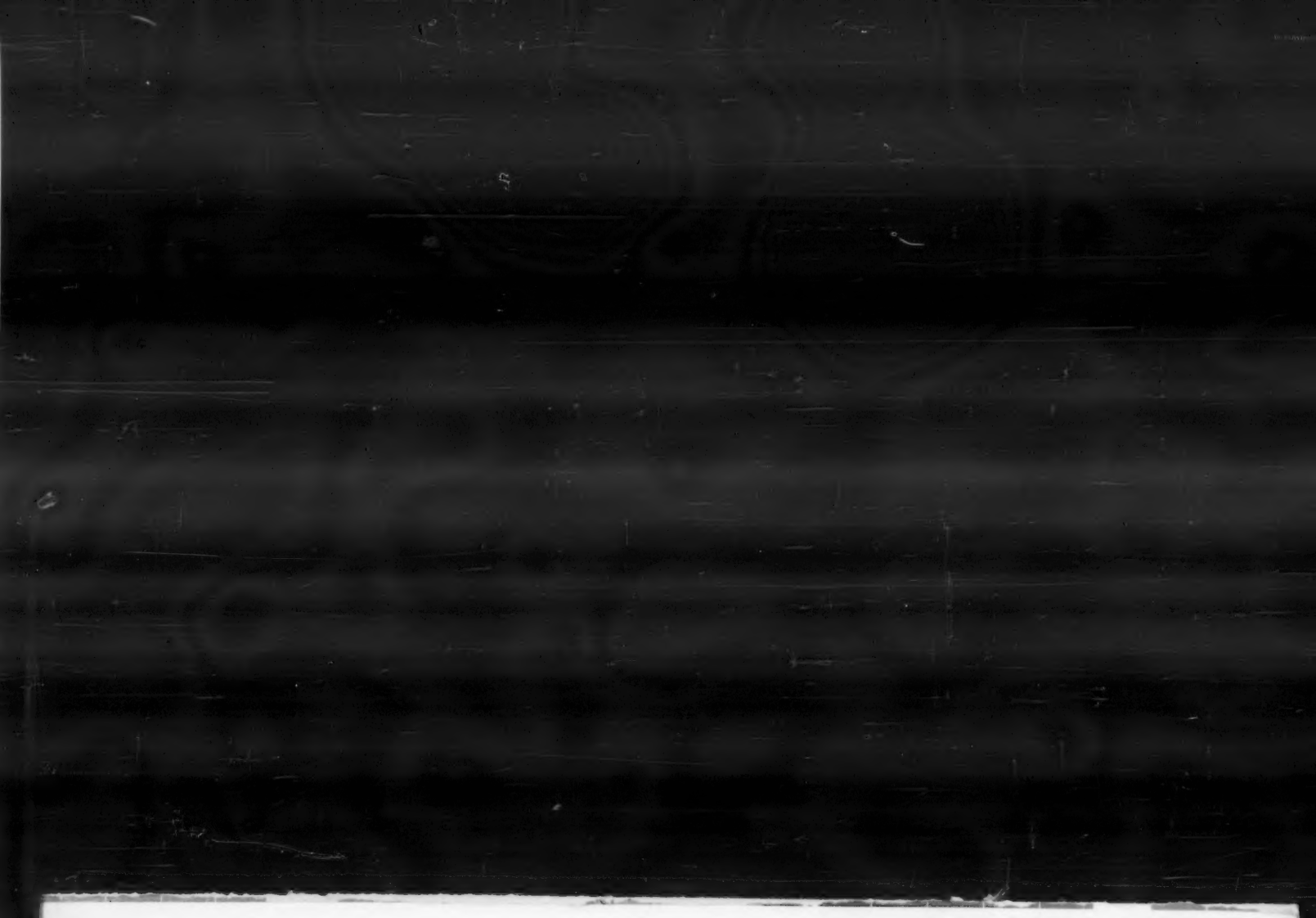
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